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A Study of Types of Goal Statements and Their Uses in a Curriculum Development Project.

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Five published articles by Elliot Eisner, director of a curriculum development project in the visual arts for elementary school pupils, were examined to determine the comparable applicability of expressed educational objectives. Ninety-nine goal statements were differentiated into five categories: (1) AIMS describe a desired final state or process; (2) EXPLANATIONS specify a relation that the author believes exists between phenomena of importance in curriculum; (3) CONCEPTIONS reveal the curriculum planner's central conceptions and their relations with one another and with the phenomena; (4) EXEMPLARY PRODUCTS describe activities or materials which serve as models of successful curriculum development; and (5) PROCEDURES describe actions to be performed whenever certain standard situations arise. A staff survey indicated that for a new project member AIMS are not significantly more useful than other types of goal statements, positive statements are more useful than negative statements, and concrete statements are perceived to be more useful than abstract statements. (JK)

A STUDY OF TYPES OF GOAL STATEMENTS AND THEIR USES  
IN A CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT PROJECT

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It is commonly thought that the formulation of educational objectives is an essential part of curriculum planning, yet observations of curriculum development projects indicate that educational objectives, behavioral or otherwise, play at best a peripheral role in many of them. This anomaly is all the more surprising since curriculum-development projects are cooperative endeavors requiring people to work together toward common goals. How can these shared goals be conceptualized if not through the use of educational objectives?

When I began observing the Kettering Project--a curriculum development project in the visual arts for elementary school pupils at Stanford--I looked especially for ways that staff members came to agreement on the project's goals and on the procedures that ought to be used in order to reach these goals. Listening to planning sessions convinced me that much of the talk that occurred in these sessions did indeed concern goals, but that the concept of educational objectives was too restricted to capture the forms taken by such talk. Therefore, instead of looking for

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the use of educational objectives in the project, I looked for what I called goal-statements--statements which revealed or characterized, in any way, the project's goals. The purposes of this study were then to locate goal statements, to describe the statements so located (especially forms other than educational objectives), and to discover whether these other types of statements are as useful as educational objectives.

Searching for goal statements in the complexities of the actual discourse that occurred in staff meetings would have presented formidable practical problems. Fortunately however the project director, Elliot W. Eisner, had published several articles describing his ideas about curriculum and, since these articles addressed many of the same issues that arose in staff meetings, I decided to look for goal statements in these articles. After preliminary study five articles were found which dealt with curriculum development in the arts. Each statement in these articles which seemed to characterize the process or product goals of the Kettering project, i.e., each goal statement, was transcribed onto an index card. This procedure yielded 99 goal statements.

These statements were then examined in an attempt to identify the way each one provided information about goals. For example, the statement "Art education has been so preoccupied with engaging

the student that it has neglected to teach him the basic skills necessary for producing and understanding works of art" and the statement "Two or three activities should be formulated for each objective" both tell us something about the author's goals, but they do so in very different ways. I finally decided to distinguish five categories of goal statements on the basis of the different ways in which each characterized goals. These five categories are called AIMS, EXPLANATIONS, CONCEPTIONS, EXEMPLARY PRODUCTS, and PROCEDURES.

AIMS characterize the goal directly by describing a desired final state or process. The ordinary forms of educational objectives function in this way and therefore belong in this category.

EXPLANATIONS characterize the goal by specifying a relation that the author believes exists between phenomena of importance in curriculum. For example, the statement "Vocabulary can supply verbal handles or tools for thinking about important phenomena in art" reveals belief in a relation between language and perception which provides considerable, though indirect, information about such things as the author's attitude toward the teaching of vocabulary in art.

CONCEPTIONS characterize the goal by revealing the curriculum planner's central conceptions and their relations with one another and with the phenomena, which in turn gives information about

goals. For example, the statement "Artistic activity is a highly complex mode of cognitive functioning" states a conception of art and its relation to cognitive functioning that indirectly tells us something about the kind of art curriculum its author would prefer.

EXEMPLARY PRODUCTS characterize product goals by describing activities or materials which serve as models of successful curriculum development. An EXEMPLARY PRODUCT is a concrete instance of an attained goal, an ostensive definition of the goal. For example, the statement "One of the devices we use shows the same painting executed in radically different color schemes" is an EXEMPLARY PRODUCT.

Finally, PROCEDURES characterize process goals by describing actions to be performed whenever certain standard situations arise. A PROCEDURE is a concrete specification of the actions considered most likely to lead to the goal. The statement "Accompanying each lesson there should be one or more evaluation devices" is an example of a PROCEDURE.

These five types of goal statements--AIMS, EXPLANATIONS, CONCEPTIONS, EXEMPLARY PRODUCTS and PROCEDURES--all reveal, with varying degrees of directness and concreteness, their author's goals. The 99 such statements discovered in Eisner's five articles consisted of 30 AIMS, 16 EXPLANATIONS, 33 CONCEPTIONS, 5 EXEMPLARY



PRODUCTS, and 15 PROCEDURES. Therefore if educational objectives (AIMS) had been selected for study instead of the more inclusive concept of goal statements, 70% of the statements that revealed information about goals would have gone unnoticed.

In order to test the objectivity of the distinction among the five types of goal statements, three teams, each composed of two graduate students unfamiliar with the project, were asked to classify thirty goal statements into the five categories after a half-hour of training. The coefficients of agreement between their classifications and mine were .63, .63 and .80. Longer training periods should yield higher coefficients.

Even though the five-fold distinction seemed conceptually sound and empirically objective, it was still logically possible for AIMS to be the only type of goal statement actually providing useful information and for the other categories to be of only academic interest. In order to test whether the other four categories of goal statements were perceived by curriculum developers to be as useful as AIMS in informing others about the project, I developed a 108 item rating instrument. Forty-eight of these items were goal statements selected from the ninety-nine obtained in the content analysis. The other sixty were constructed by combining pairs of statements and these will not be discussed in this paper. The forty-eight items of interest here consisted of 6 AIMS, 6 EXPLANATIONS,

6 CONCEPTIONS, 6 EXEMPLARY PRODUCTS, 6 PROCEDURES and 18 extra statements: 6 AIMS, 6 EXPLANATIONS and 6 CONCEPTIONS. These extra statements, obtained in the content analysis of Eisner's articles had been used as negative examples, that is, they had been used as foils to contrast the author's beliefs with those of some other person or group. Since the technique of defining goals by saying what they were not seemed to be a reasonable one and since the content analysis had yielded a number of goal statements that had been used in this way, I decided to include some of them in the instrument. In the form in which they appeared in the instrument these negative statements, as I called them, did not differ from the other statements. Their single distinguishing characteristic was that Eisner had repudiated them while he had endorsed the other 30 positive statements.

The project staff then rated the 108 statements, arranged in random order, on the extent to which each would be of use in inducting a new member into the project. A rating of A for a statement meant that the rater thought the statement would be very useful to the new member, B indicated a somewhat useful statement, while C meant that the statement was perceived as being not useful at all. A rating of D indicated that the statement would be somewhat useful as a negative example: that is, that the statement expressed a view that the Kettering Project opposed. Finally an E rating indicated

that the statement would be very useful as a negative example.

Three questions were asked of the data from the instrument.

1. Are AIMS more useful than other types of statements?
2. Are positive statements more useful than negative statements?
3. Are concrete types of goal statements (EXEMPLARY PRODUCTS, PROCEDURES) more useful than abstract types of goal statements (EXPLANATIONS, CONCEPTIONS).

Table I shows histograms of the ratings of the forty-eight statements.

The major findings from the instrument were:

1. AIMS are not perceived as significantly more useful than other types of statements in communicating about the project to a new member. (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test  $p > .10$ )
2. Positive goal statements are perceived as being more useful than negative goal statements. (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test  $p < .01$ )
3. Concrete types of goal statements (EXEMPLARY PRODUCTS, PROCEDURES) are perceived to be more useful than abstract types (EXPLANATIONS, CONCEPTIONS). (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test  $p < .01$ )

Since these findings result from a study of only one project there is no sound empirical basis for generalizing to other projects. However, the study as a whole does establish three major conclusions regarding one nationally-financed, ad-hoc curriculum



development group.

1. The concept of goal statement appears to lead to greater understanding of the goals of the project than the notion of educational objective.
2. People can be taught to discriminate reliably among the five types of goal statements.
3. AIMS are perceived by project members as being not significantly more useful than the other four types of goal statements in orienting a new member to the project's work.

If the conclusions of this study prove to be generally valid then the question of the appropriate role of various types of educational objectives can be recast in a broader mold. In curriculum development, if not in curriculum evaluation, the crucial concern is that goals be communicated effectively. If it is true that AIM-type statements are only one medium for the transmission of information about goals, then in asking what type of educational objective works best we may be asking the wrong question. Perhaps we ought to ask instead what kinds of goal statements are most effective.

Considering the money and effort expended on curriculum development projects and the excitement they have generated it is surprising that they are so little studied. For example, I believe such projects are a fertile field for research on fundamental issues in

curriculum theory and practice. I offer this study as one example of that kind of research.

Publication of an article, "Toward More Effective Curriculum Development Projects in Art," describing this research in more detail is scheduled for the autumn issue of Studies in Art Education. Further information is available from the author upon request.

TABLE I

